



October 1992

## Equitable over Time? — Evaluating the 'Costs' of Interstate Compact Participation

N.E. Schafer & Leslie Wenderoff

---

### ***Suggested citation***

Schafer, N.E.; & Wenderoff, Leslie. (1992). "Equitable over Time? — Evaluating the 'Costs' of Interstate Compact Participation". Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Midwestern Criminal Justice Association, Chicago, Oct 1992.

### ***Summary***

The Interstate Compact for the Supervision of Parolees and Probationers (ICSP) provides for the supervision of offenders in states other than those in which they were sentenced. It is assumed that the number of offenders entering a state for supervision is, over time, approximately equal to the number leaving for supervision elsewhere. Thus the net "cost" to the state would, over time, be zero. Data on Alaska's participation in the Interstate Compact formed the impetus for a study of Interstate Compact clients processed through the Anchorage probation office. This study suggests that numbers should not be the only measure of cost: demographic and offense characteristics of clients, as well as their supervision needs, should be factored into any cost assessment.

**Equitable Over Time?—Evaluating the “Costs” of  
Interstate Compact Participation**

by

N.E. Schafer

and

L. Wenderoff

Justice Center  
University of Alaska Anchorage

JC # 8706.03

Presented at the annual meeting of the  
Midwestern Criminal Justice Association, Chicago, October 1992.

# **Equitable Over Time?—Evaluating the “Costs” of Interstate Compact Participation**

by N.E. Schafer and L. Wenderoff

## **Abstract**

The Interstate Compact for Probation and Parole provides for the supervision of offenders in states other than those in which they were sentenced. It is assumed that the number of offenders entering a state for supervision is, over time, approximately equal to the number leaving for supervision elsewhere. Thus the net “cost” to the state would, over time, be zero. Data on Alaska’s participation in the Interstate Compact formed the impetus for a study of Interstate Compact clients processed through the Anchorage probation office. This study suggests that numbers should not be the only measure of cost: demographic and offense characteristics of clients, as well as their supervision needs, should be factored into any cost assessment.

## **Equitable Over Time?—Evaluating the “Costs” of Interstate Compact Participation**

The Interstate Compact for Supervision of Parolees and Probationers is an agreement by which one state agrees to provide supervision for offenders on community release status from other states. All fifty states as well as the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands participate in the Interstate Compact; twenty-five states signed the compact in 1937 and the others had all done so by the 1960s. Under the compact, each participating state agrees to accept supervision of a parolee or probationer from another compact state as long as the offender meets minimal criteria: he may be a resident of the receiving state; he may have a relative who is resident; he must be able to find employment.

Because each participating state both sends and receives offenders, it has been assumed that the workload generated by participation in the compact will prove to be equitable over time. No empirical test of this assumption has been reported during the fifty-five years of the compact's existence. This paper reports the second phase of a preliminary examination of compact equity using the state of Alaska as a case study.

### **The Interstate Compact**

The Crime Control Consent Act of 1934 included a provision that two or more states could enter into agreements for the purpose of crime prevention. The Interstate Commission on Crime was established shortly thereafter and was responsible for drafting the Interstate Compact for Supervision of Parolees and Probationers in recognition of the growing mobility of the U.S. population and of the need for formal arrangements to monitor offenders (Brendes, 1968). A primary

purpose of the compact was to discourage the informal practice of “sundown probation” (Council of State Governments, 1978). Sundown probation involved releasing offenders on the condition that they quickly and permanently leave the jurisdiction. Such a practice does not control crime, it only moves it. Formal arrangements for monitoring “mobile” offenders were deemed necessary.

The general provisions of the compact are:

- 1) the receiving state will supervise a parolee or probationer from any [sending] state if he is a resident of the receiving state and has employment there;
- 2) the receiving state will supervise the sending state’s [offender] by the same standards used for its own. . . ;
- 3) the sending state may revoke . . . and retake the [offender] at its discretion and with a minimum of formality.

(Brendes, 1968, p. 42)

The receiving state may consent to supervision even if these qualifications are absent. In practice, few states refuse to receive any offender sent under the compact even if he does not meet all of the requirements (Brendes, 1968).

The Council of State Governments assumed supervisory responsibility for the Interstate Commission on Crime in 1942, and has served as secretariat for the Parole and Probation Administrators Association since it was formed in 1946 to encourage cooperation among states. The Association meets regularly to discuss policies and procedures and to resolve issues and is responsible for the development of a manual for use by member states. It also serves as a vehicle for personal interchange among state compact administrators. Brendes (1968) suggested that the opportunity to develop personal contacts among administrators has contributed to the success of the compact.

The Council of State Governments reports compact participation and the movement of offenders among the states annually. The data are provided by the states on a voluntary basis and every state does not submit data for every year. (See Table 1.) CSG data showed major increases in the total number of compact transfers

**Table 1. Interstate Compact Transfers Nationwide, 1952–1986**

<b>Year<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>Number of states reporting</b>	<b>Number of transfers</b>
1952 <sup>2</sup>	31	17,000
1955 <sup>2</sup>	42	23,623
1960	41	30,295
1964	46	37,588
1969	49	43,393
1973	36	52,687
1976	36	38,197
1980	36	62,436
1984	35	77,792
1986	34	72,385

1. Years were selected on the basis of complete data for all reporting states.

2. In 1952 and 1956 only 48 states participated in the compact.

*Source of data:* Council of State Governments, Lexington, KY.

during the last forty years, even though the figures were not universally reported (Council of State Governments, 1987). The data in Table 1 were selected from annual reports for years with the most complete data from the reporting states. Some states do not report; others report only part years or only the number of offenders sent or received. Because the data are incomplete, it is difficult to determine for any specific state or even for regions of the country whether numeric equity has been achieved over time, whether the flow of offenders into or out of a particular state or region can be correlated with factors peculiar to that state or region, or whether some states regularly bear a greater supervision burden than others.

Although numbers can provide gross information on the impact of compact participation and on probation and parole caseloads and are considered here, numbers are not the only measure of equity. This paper addresses two of these: cost of supervision (in time and effort, more than dollars) and cost to the community (through increased risk from recidivism).

## **Measuring Equity**

The time and effort required for supervision of offenders in the community vary according to the types of offenders supervised. Most parole agencies and many, if not most, probation agencies classify offenders and, based upon this classification, assign them to a level of supervision—minimum, medium, maximum and, more recently,

intensive supervision. Classification is usually based upon a risk assessment instrument such as those used by paroling authorities to predict parole success and decide whether to grant or deny parole. The most widely known is probably the Salient Factor Score developed in 1970 by the United States Parole Commission to assess risk of recidivism. The initial instrument contained eleven statements which were either true about the inmate or not true. The number of true statements was the Salient Factor Score. The original instrument included six legal factors and five personal ones (related to age, education, marital status and employment) (Gottfredson, et al., 1978).

The National Institute of Corrections has more recently developed probation/parole management systems which incorporate risk and needs assessment instruments for classification purposes. The factors used to predict reoffense are similar to those in the Salient Factor Score.

Risk prediction instruments used for parole prognosis tend to be tied to the offender's legal status and system experience. Values are assigned to such factors as prior record, prior commitments, prior commitment-free periods, probation, parole, confinement history, etc., to determine potential parole success. Age and drug dependence are the predominant personal factors used. These factors are included in most community-release classification schemes and these and others have been adapted from and examined in both validation and recidivism studies.

Type of offense has been examined in a number of studies of recidivism which have found that property offenders had the highest rates of recidivism. In a study of parolees in Texas, Eisenberg (1986) found property offenders more likely to recidivate in the first year of release than any other type of offender he studied. Williams (1978) found burglars highly likely to recidivate. Wallerstedt (1984) found the lowest rearrests for drug use or dealing followed by homicide, forgery/fraud/embezzlement, and sexual assault. Koerin (1978) hypothesized that violent offenders are less likely

to reoffend because crimes of violence tend to be situational, and the situations which evoked the initial violence are not likely to recur. Menard and Covey (1983), on the other hand, found an association between violence and rearrest.

Prior record has also been correlated with recidivism. Several studies have shown that the more extensive the criminal history, the greater the rate of recidivism (Beck & Shipley, 1987; Beck & Shipley, 1989; Wallerstedt, 1984; et al.).

Of all demographic characteristics studied for risk prediction purposes, age appears to bear the highest correlation with risk. Recidivism studies have shown that the younger an offender is when released from prison, the greater the likelihood that he will recidivate (Wallerstedt, 1984; Greenfeld, 1985; Beck & Shipley, 1987; et al.). This research suggests that age differentials between offenders sent and offenders received under the compact will have a bearing on measures of community risk.

Most recidivism studies which included gender found males significantly more likely to recidivate than females. Williams (1978) reported that sex is one of the strongest predictors of potential recidivism and Wallerstedt (1984) found the gender differential "substantial."

While age and sex appear to be useful factors for measuring community risk, race may not be. In their study of young parolees, Beck and Shipley found minority releasees more likely than white releasees to be rearrested within six years of release (1987: 3), and Wallerstedt (1984) also found lower rearrest rates among white releasees. However, other researchers have not found this correlation (e.g., Greenfeld, 1985).

Educational level may also be a factor in measuring risk to the community. One study reported a significant relationship between recidivism and grade completed (Roundtree et al., 1984). Beck and Shipley (1987: 8) found lower recidivism among high school graduates than among offenders who had not completed high school.



Drug abuse has been found to have some association with risk of reoffending. Beck and Shipley's 1989 study found offenders with prior drug arrests more likely to be rearrested.

Offense type, prior record, system history, age, and drug history help to assess the "cost" to a state of supervising the offender they receive under the compact by determining the level of supervision needed. This cost is offset by the kinds of offenders the state sends to other states for supervision there. Over and above the cost of supervision is the cost to the community at large of dealing with crimes which may be committed by reoffending compact probationers and parolees. Community risk can be assessed using supervision level and additional factors identified through recidivism studies—gender, race, educational level and marital status.

## **Background of the Study**

The state of Alaska is a highly appropriate site for a case study of equity under the interstate compact. The population is small, which obviates the need for sampling: total numbers can be used. More important to its suitability is the highly centralized nature of the Alaska justice system, particularly probation and parole functions. All field supervision of both probationers and parolees is accomplished through a single state agency, the Division of Probation, which operates as a part of the Alaska Department of Corrections.

Alaska became a signatory to the Interstate Compact in 1962, three years after achieving statehood. At that time Alaska had no prisons and was still operating as the territory it had so recently been. Convicted felons were incarcerated under the auspices of the Federal Bureau of Prisons. The new state was accustomed to the movement of offenders for both confinement and supervision.

When corrections became a state responsibility, it was placed within the Department of Health and Social Services as a division. The Division of Corrections

grew rapidly and became a cabinet level department in 1984. This growth included the Division of Probation. The number of offenders under supervision by the Division more than doubled over the ten-year period 1976–1986, growing from 1010 to 2153.

According to agency personnel, this dramatic increase in the community-based population was accompanied by proportional increases in individual caseloads. The perception that increasing numbers of compact transfers were contributing to the increase in caseloads led the Anchorage office of the Division of Probation to an interest in assessing the impact on average caseloads of the state's participation in the compact. Such an assessment was hampered by the lack of adequate data. Records of interstate transactions have not been maintained by either the Department of Corrections or its former parent agency, Health and Social Services. A computer printout of data for case management was available for the years 1975–1984. (In 1984 the Department of Corrections began using OBSCIS for case management purposes.) This printout formed the basis for the first phase of this study which examined trends statewide (Schafer & Wenderoff, 1987), but some essential information (e.g., instant offense and intake date) was not available. The Department does maintain individual files, and these formed the basis for phase II data collection. The Anchorage office was the most appropriate site for an investigation of client characteristics because it is the largest in the state: almost half of all Interstate Compact clients received by Alaska are supervised through the Anchorage Probation Office.

### **Research Methodology**

The Anchorage Probation Office is the largest field office in the state and processes a larger number of Interstate Compact clients than any other Alaska office. During the ten years studied for Phase I of this study, Anchorage received 48.3 percent of all compact clients who entered Alaska and sent to other states 46.7

**Table 2. Interstate Compact Transfers in Alaska by City, 1975–1984**

City	Incoming		Outgoing		Total transfers	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Anchorage	482	48.3	258	46.7	740	47.7
Fairbanks	172	17.2	111	20.1	283	18.2
Juneau	69	6.9	53	9.6	122	7.9
Kenai	71	7.1	37	6.7	108	7.0
Ketchikan	70	7.0	35	6.3	105	6.8
Kodiak	45	4.5	29	5.3	74	4.8
Palmer	29	2.9	8	1.5	37	2.4
Sitka	17	1.7	5	0.9	22	1.4
Nome	12	1.2	6	1.1	18	1.2
Bethel	11	1.1	1	0.2	12	0.8
Petersburg	7	0.7	3	0.5	10	0.6
Haines	4	0.4	–	–	4	0.3
Wrangell	3	0.3	–	–	3	0.2
Barrow	2	0.2	1	0.2	3	0.2
Kotzebue	2	0.2	–	–	2	0.1
Dillingham	2	0.2	–	–	2	0.1
Valdez	1	0.1	–	–	1	0.1
Location missing	–	–	5	0.9	5	0.3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>999</b>		<b>552</b>		<b>1551</b>	

Column percentages may not add to 100% because of rounding.

percent of all compact clients transferred out of state. Although the proportions are large, the numbers are not. The Anchorage office received 482 clients for supervision under the compact and sent 258 clients “outside.” (See Table 2.)

Such small numbers made it possible to use all Anchorage compact clients over a period of years as a sample for this study. The years 1983–1986 were selected for study because they reflect a period of major economic change in the community and therefore serve to test one of the study’s hypotheses: i.e., that clients tend to request transfer to a state when it is experiencing economic growth and request to leave during periods of economic decline.

The compact sample was identified by the Alaska Interstate Compact coordinator, who provided identification numbers for all compact clients who were processed into or out of Anchorage during the four-year period. The list included a total of 237 entering clients and 83 departing ones for a total of 320. This number provided an adequate sample from which to draw preliminary conclusions and was, at the same time, small enough to be manageable for manual data collection.

The files for most of the completed cases were available in Anchorage at the office of the compact administrator; a few were retrieved from the state capital in

Juneau. Active cases were made available at the Anchorage Probation office by probation supervisors.

Every file was examined for those legal and demographic variables identified through the literature as related to "cost." However, the files were not complete. All needed information was not included in every file. Twenty cases were eliminated from the sample because of the extent of missing information, leaving an N of 300 (219 incoming and 81 outgoing clients). These files, too, were missing some information. Even so basic an item as intake date was missing from the files of 26 clients. Thus every variable under consideration for this study contained missing values.

Information from the file was coded for computer analysis. Each client was given a case number and coded for whether he or she was an entering client or a departing one. Both intake date and date supervision ends were entered, as were such legal variables as instant offense, prior record (adult and juvenile), sentence, status (probation or parole), and custody level, sending state and receiving state. The social/demographic characteristics collected were: date of birth (converted to age at intake), sex, race, marital status, educational level, state of birth, legal residence of client and client's parents and, where possible, the reason for the transfer request (employment, legal residence, family, etc.)

Instant offense was categorized as crimes against persons, crimes against property, crimes against the public order, and drug offenses. Actual crimes were too numerous and varied for meaningful analysis and ranged from murder in the first degree to misconduct involving a controlled substance and from armed robbery to criminal trespass. Alaska Statutes were used for coding offenses whether they were committed in the state or not.

## Results

Although one of the primary goals of this paper has been to suggest that numbers provide only one measure of equity the numbers must be reported. The data for the Anchorage Probation office show that the office regularly received for supervision more clients than it sent to other states. The impact on caseloads, which is one measure of cost, cannot be measured simply by comparing the number of clients entering with the number leaving. The possibility of supervision overlap can be a complicating factor. If each entering client must be under supervision for a number of years, new clients will add to caseloads; if new clients replace already discharged clients there will be no increase. Clearly supervision overlap can have an impact in supervision costs and officer caseloads.

Table 3 presents duration of supervision for the sample by year of intake. There are 59 missing cases due to incomplete files, leaving a total N for this table of 247 clients, 183 incoming and 64 outgoing. In each year the number of clients entering

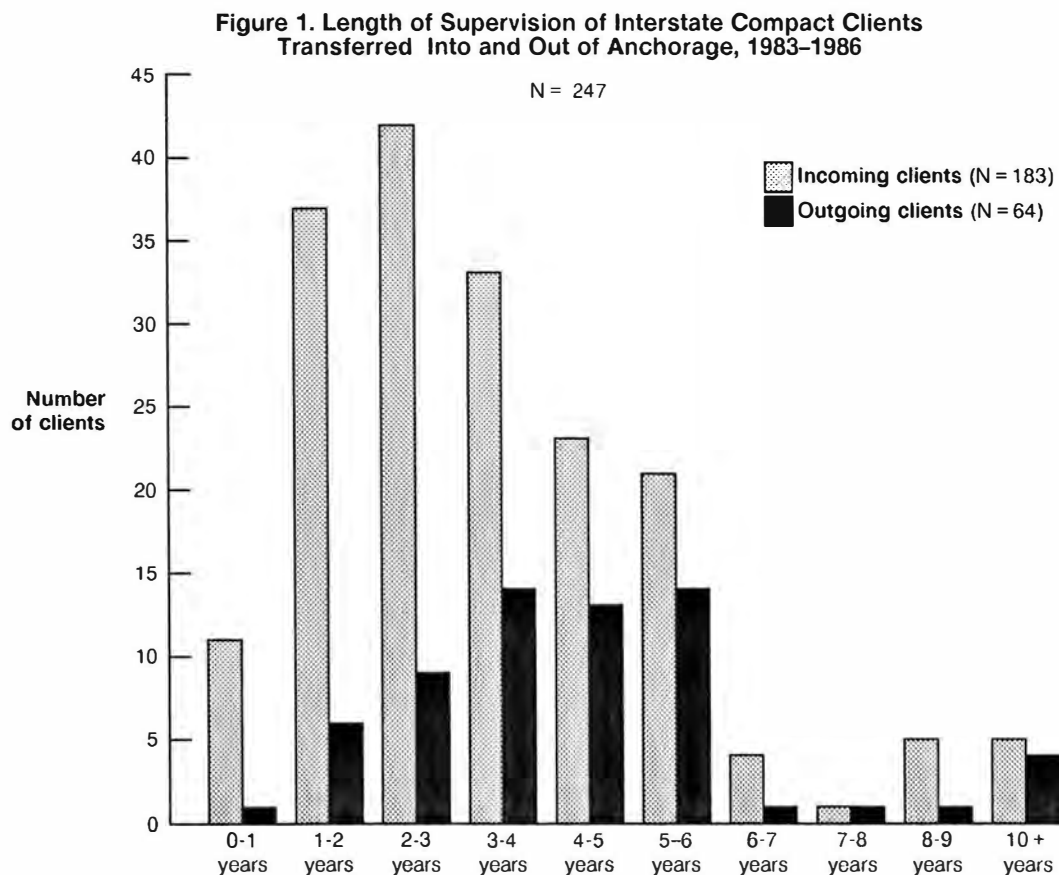
**Table 3. Length of Supervision of Interstate Compact Clients  
Transferred Into and Out of Anchorage, 1983-1986**

N = 247

	1983		1984		1985		1986		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Incoming clients</b>										
0-1 years	3	8.6	3	5.1	1	1.6	4	14.3	11	6.0
1-2 years	3	8.6	14	23.7	15	24.6	5	17.9	37	20.2
2-3 years	6	12.1	12	20.3	18	29.5	6	21.4	42	23.0
3-4 years	6	12.1	8	13.6	16	26.2	3	10.7	33	18.0
4-5 years	7	20.0	6	10.2	3	4.9	7	25.0	23	12.6
5-6 years	5	14.3	11	18.6	4	6.6	1	3.6	21	11.5
6-7 years	2	5.7	1	1.7	1	1.6	-	-	4	2.2
7-8 years	-	-	1	1.7	-	-	-	-	1	0.5
8-9 years	1	2.9	2	3.4	1	1.6	2	7.1	6	3.3
10+ years	2	5.7	1	1.7	2	3.3	-	-	5	2.7
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>32.2</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>33.3</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Outgoing clients</b>										
0-1 years	-	-	-	-	1	3.2	-	-	1	1.6
1-2 years	-	-	2	11.8	4	12.9	-	-	6	9.4
2-3 years	2	15.4	3	17.6	3	9.7	1	33.3	9	14.1
3-4 years	4	30.8	3	17.6	7	22.6	-	-	14	21.9
4-5 years	4	30.8	2	11.8	6	19.4	1	33.3	13	20.3
5-6 years	2	15.4	3	17.6	8	28.8	1	33.3	14	21.9
6-7 years	-	-	-	-	1	3.2	-	-	1	1.6
7-8 years	1	7.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6
8-9 years	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	-	-	1	1.6
10+ years	-	-	3	17.6	1	3.2	-	-	4	6.3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>20.3</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>26.6</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>48.4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4.7</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Alaska was greater than the number leaving it, a pattern consistent with Phase I figures for the state during the previous decade. Had Alaska not been a signatory to the compact, the Anchorage office would have supervised fewer clients—those it would not have transferred, rather than the larger number it received. The duration data mitigate these results somewhat. Duration was computed by subtracting date of intake from the date supervision was scheduled to end. The length of supervision ranged from less than one year to ten or more years. For the total sample, duration was shorter for incoming than for outgoing clients, a mean of 3.07 years compared to 4.11 years for those who left the state.

Figure 1 illustrates more clearly how the excessive numbers of incoming over outgoing clients negate the impact of the proportionally longer supervision periods of the outgoing clients. The number of incoming clients is so much greater that it offsets most of the differential “cost” factors discussed throughout the paper.



Whether this earlier discharge from probation or parole supervision might have an impact on community risk requires a more detailed assessment of the characteristics of the incoming clients, particularly as they relate to attributes associated with risk of recidivism.

A number of legal characteristics have been found to have an impact upon supervision costs as well as potential community risk. These are summarized in Table 4. The most obvious of these is supervision level. In Alaska as in most jurisdictions the time devoted by each officer to each client is determined by the level of supervision needed by that client, with maximum level clients requiring six times as many contacts per month as minimum level clients.

Supervision level for both incoming and outgoing clients is shown in Table 4.1. The N for this table was 276, 201 incoming and 75 outgoing clients. For the total sample, incoming clients were more likely to require medium supervision (50.2%), while outgoing clients were more likely to require maximum supervision (54.7%). Because there are nearly three times as many incoming as outgoing offenders for whom such data were available, the end result is that more clients required maximum supervision by the Anchorage office (N=65) than would have had Alaska not been a compact participant and kept the outgoing clients for maximum supervision here (N=41). It should be noted, however, that custody level may change

**Table 4. Summary of Legal Variables—Interstate Compact Clients  
Transferred Into and Out of Anchorage, 1983–1986**

<b>4.1 – Supervision level</b>		<b>Incoming</b>		<b>Outgoing</b>		<b>4.3 – Instant offense</b>		<b>Incoming</b>		<b>Outgoing</b>	
N = 276		N	%	N	%	N = 280		N	%	N	%
	Maximum	65	32.3	41	54.7		Crimes against persons	43	20.3	24	35.3
	Medium	101	50.2	14	18.7		Crimes against property	103	48.6	22	32.4
	Minimum	35	17.4	20	26.7		Drug offenses	44	20.8	16	23.5
							Other offenses	22	10.4	6	8.8
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>201</b>		<b>75</b>			<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>212</b>		<b>68</b>	
<b>4.2 – Sentence for instant offense</b>		<b>Incoming</b>		<b>Outgoing</b>							
N = 274		N	%	N	%						
	Incarcerated	70	35.2	45	60.0						
	Deferred, suspended, probation	129	64.8	30	40.0						
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>199</b>		<b>75</b>							

Percentages may not add to 100% because of rounding.

over time: as offenders prove themselves able to function in the community, their supervision requirements may be reduced.

There is some suggestion in the literature that offenders who have been in prison for a portion of their sentences may have a more difficult time adjusting to the community than those whose sentences did not include a period of incarceration. Although recidivism studies suggest that there is no substantial difference in the success rates of probationers and parolees, those who experience community adjustment problems may require more time from their supervising officer, thus increasing supervision costs. Information on incarceration for the instant offense is therefore included in Table 4.2, which shows that a substantially larger proportion of outgoing clients (60.0%) than of incoming clients (35.2%) had been incarcerated for the instant offense.

Although the literature is mixed on the relation of offense to recidivism, this variable is also included in Table 4.3. Because of the large number of crimes committed, these were categorized into crimes against persons, crimes against property, violations of drug laws, and other offenses.

Incoming offenders were more likely to have been sentenced for property crimes than for any other crime category (48.6%). For outgoing clients there was a relatively even split between crimes against persons (35.3%) and crimes against property (32.4%). The proportion of drug violators was similar for both subsets of the sample, 20.8 percent for incoming clients and 23.5 percent for outgoing clients. In actual numbers the differences are not particularly relevant since nearly twice as many incoming as outgoing offenders had committed crimes against persons, and more than twice as many had committed drug offenses.

While instant offense has not been definitively associated with recidivism, nearly all recidivism studies have found a correlation between prior record and recidivism. Two variables were available in the file for assessing this measure of



cost: prior record and juvenile record. The adult criminal histories in the files included offense histories while in most files the existence of a juvenile record was simply noted. The extent to which the juvenile backgrounds of the clients were thoroughly examined cannot be known, but considering the incompleteness of the files in relation to other variables, the accuracy of this notation cannot be assumed. The data available showed that 80.5 percent of the total sample had no notation of a juvenile record in their files; 77.1 percent of incoming clients and 89.2 percent of outgoing clients appear to have had no record of law violation as juveniles.

Criminal histories were more likely to have been accurately noted in the files, particularly since actual offenses were noted. Nevertheless only 28 incoming and 17 outgoing clients had prior records. Since suspension or deferment of sentence is not likely to be given to repeat offenders, these figures may be realistic, but the condition of the files prohibits even a tentative conclusion about this variable.

Files were more complete *vis a vis* personal/social variables than for many of the legal variables. Table 5 presents an abbreviated look at the demographic characteristics of age, gender, race, marital status, and education. The sample was overwhelmingly male (85.6%)—83.4 percent of incoming clients and 92.5 percent of outgoing clients—and it was predominantly white (83.9%). Since gender has been associated with repeat offending, this proportion is an advantage, but the numbers are very small. Alaska's largest minority is Alaska Natives; their rates of recidivism have never been definitively measured. While they were twice as likely to be entering the state (N = 9) as leaving it (N = 4), the numbers are very small. It may be that they are less likely to request transfer to Anchorage than to other parts of the state. Interestingly, African-American clients left the state in the same numbers as they entered it: eleven incoming clients were Black and twelve outgoing clients were. This is the only variable where there was numeric equity between incoming and outgoing clients. It is possible that Blacks residing in Alaska have more family

**Table 5. Summary of Personal and Social Characteristics—Interstate Compact Clients Transferred Into and Out of Anchorage, 1983–1986**

5.1 – Age				
N = 269				
	Incoming mean = 29.6		Outgoing mean = 31.2	
	N	%	N	%
17–21	40	19.7	8	12.1
22–26	53	26.1	19	28.8
27–31	39	19.2	11	16.7
32–36	35	17.2	14	21.2
37–46	24	11.8	10	15.2
47–76	12	5.9	4	6.1
TOTAL	203		66	

5.2 – Race				
N = 286				
	Incoming		Outgoing	
	N	%	N	%
White	178	86.0	62	78.5
Alaska Native	9	4.3	4	5.1
Black	11	5.3	12	15.2
Hispanic	4	1.9	1	1.3
Asian	5	2.4	–	–
TOTAL	207		79	

5.3 – Marital status				
	Incoming		Outgoing	
	N	%	N	%
Single	96	47.1	38	48.1
Married	59	28.9	23	29.1
Divorced/separated	38	18.6	15	19.0
Widowed	11	5.4	3	3.8
TOTAL	204		79	

5.4 – Education				
	Incoming		Outgoing	
	N	%	N	%
Less than high school	63	38.4	18	22.8
High school graduate	43	26.2	20	25.3
G.E.D.	24	14.6	16	20.3
Some college	29	17.7	23	29.1
4 or more years college	5	3.0	2	2.5
TOTAL	164		79	

Percentages may not add to 100% because of rounding

had not completed high school. A larger proportion of incoming clients than outgoing clients had not completed high school, and a larger proportion of outgoing than incoming clients had had at least some college, 31.6 percent compared to 20.7 percent. Educational level was missing from the files of 57 clients. If education is associated with risk of reoffending, this variable too puts Anchorage at a disadvantage in terms of potential cost to the community.

Most of the descriptive data about incoming and outgoing clients suggest that Anchorage has been in an inequitable position *vis a vis* Interstate Compact participation. Where the data suggest that a higher proportion of at-risk clients are leaving the state for supervision elsewhere, the inequity of the numbers negates the proportional advantage. Reducing this numeric inequity requires that the receiving state more critically assess incoming clients and reject those who do not appear to fulfill the requirements for Interstate Compact transfer. One of the following criteria must be met: legal residence of the state to which one requests transfer; a relative who is a legal resident of that state; or employment in that state.

The reason for the transfer request was included in data collection (see Table 6). While 33 cases were missing, the remaining cases showed that the primary reason for the transfer request was having a family member in the receiving state. This was the case for 69.3 percent of the incoming and 76.0 percent of the outgoing offenders. Employment and/or offers of residence were cited by 51 incoming (26.6%) and ten outgoing offenders (13.3%). One category of some interest to the state was a request

**Table 6. Reason for Transfer of Interstate Compact Clients  
Transferred Into and Out of Anchorage, 1983–1986**

	Incoming		Outgoing	
	N	%	N	%
Family	133	69.3	57	76.0
Residence or employment	51	26.6	10	13.3
Fiance or friend	8	4.2	3	4.0
Federal Bureau of Prisons	—	—	5	6.7
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>192</b>		<b>75</b>	

Percentages may not add to 100% because of rounding.

by five offenders who served their state time in federal prisons to serve the parole period in the state where the prison was located. All were Alaska prisoners, sentenced in Alaska, and they constitute 6.7 percent of the outgoing offenders.

It was hypothesized that many of the 40 young (age 17–21) incoming clients might be Alaska residents who had left the state for educational/vocational training purposes and were returning to their families after violating the laws of the states to which they had gone. A cross-tabulation of age with reason for transfer found 31 young incoming clients coming to Anchorage for family reasons. Three 20-year-olds had employment offers and two 21-year-olds had an offer of a place to stay. Reason for transfer was unknown for the remainder of the young clients.

Age was also correlated with legal residence. More than one-quarter of the incoming clients for whom this information was available were legal residents of Alaska (N=52), but 62.3 percent of the 61 outgoing clients were also Alaska residents (N=38). An examination of this variable as it relates to young incoming clients found only 12 Alaska residents, an indication that the hypothesis about this age group was incorrect.

Another data point used to examine the reason for the transfer request was mother's legal residence. This information was unknown or missing from a substantial number of files, leaving an N of 121 incoming clients and 54 outgoing clients whose mother's residence was known. Alaska was mother's residence for 51 incoming clients (42.1%) and for seven outgoing clients (13.0%).

Reason for transfer request was also compared by race in order to examine Afro-American clients, who were the only group equally represented among incoming and outgoing clients. The reason was known for ten of the eleven incoming black clients and for all of the twelve outgoing black clients. Eight incoming clients indicated family members as a reason for coming to Alaska, but none of the eight listed a

parent as the family member. Three had spouses in Anchorage, two had siblings here, and the remaining three listed an uncle, a grandparent and a cousin.

In contrast, family was the reason why nine outgoing client requested transfer and five of the nine listed parents as the family member. This suggests that incoming black clients were seeking a fresh start away from “home” while outgoing clients were more likely to be returning “home” after living in Alaska.

## **Discussion**

This paper has presented an exploratory case study of equity under the Interstate Compact for Anchorage, Alaska. Numerically the Anchorage Probation office has had an unequal supervisory load under the compact for the four years of the study, receiving nearly three clients for supervision for every one it transferred from the state for supervision elsewhere. A number of factors related to supervision requirements and prediction of risk to the community were examined as other measures of equity. On a number of these, outgoing clients presented proportionally greater supervision costs and greater risks for recidivism, but they cannot offset the extraordinary numeric inequity. These factors might be used in such studies elsewhere in order to determine whether or not specific localities, states or regions bear an inequitable burden under the compact provisions.

The data for this study were manually collected from the files of Interstate Compact clients, but the files were not complete. No other source of data about this group of offenders is available in Alaska. Apparently no other source is available in other places. The data on incoming and outgoing clients made available by participatory states to the Council of State Governments is not *numerically* complete. It is doubtful if many states are able to maintain risk information when they find it difficult to provide numbers.

Alaska has an advantage over most other states in data availability because probation and parole are operated by the same statewide agency. Elsewhere these functions are under the aegis of different departments: in some states probation is a judicial function while parole belongs in the executive branch; in some probation is a local (county) function, while parole is a state function. This greatly complicates the accumulation of accurate data on Interstate Compact clients.

Collection and maintenance of information about Interstate Compact clients would make it possible to examine trends in the movement of offenders throughout the United States. It would also enable policy makers to make informed decision about changing compact criteria or revising the compact agreement.

Alaska became a compact signatory more than thirty years ago. It may be that those thirty years saw an essentially equal number of incoming to outgoing clients, or perhaps essentially equal supervision requirements for incoming and outgoing clients, but this cannot be determined for Alaska or for any other participating state.

Knowledge about equity would not necessarily evoke change in a state's participation in the compact. Most states would continue to feel a duty to their residents and would continue to accept them (or their relatives) for supervision. In Anchorage the vast majority of the sample requested compact transfer into or out of the state to be with family members. In all probability it would prove to be the same in other states, but it is not possible to know this at the present time.

## References

- Austin, J. (1987). *Success and failure on parole in California: A preliminary evaluation*. San Francisco: National Council on Crime and Delinquency.
- Beck, A.S. and Shipley, B.E. (1987, May). Recidivism of young parolees. *Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report*, NCJ-104916. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- (1989, March). Recidivism of prisoners released in 1983. *Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report*, NCJ-116261. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Brendes, R.C. (1968). Interstate supervision of parole and probation. *Crime and Delinquency* 14(2): 253-260.
- Cohen, M.L., Groth, A.N., and Siegal, R. (1978, January). The clinical prediction of dangerousness. *Crime and Delinquency* 24(1): 28-39.
- Council of State Governments (1978). *The Handbook on Interstate Crime Control*. Lexington, KY.
- (1987). *Parole and Probation Compact Administrators Directory*. Lexington, KY.
- Eisenberg, M. (1986). *Release Outcome: Repeat Offenders*. Austin, TX: Texas Board of Pardons and Parole.
- Gardren, M.A., Jr., and Lewis, D.C. (1988). Drug offenses and the probation system: A 17-year followup of probationer status. *Federal Probation* 52(2): 17-27.
- Gottfredson, D.M., Cosgrove, C.A., Wilkins, L.T., Wallerstein, J., and Rauh, C. (1978). *Classification for Parole Decision Policy*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.
- Greenfeld, L.A. (1985, February). Examining recidivism. *Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report*, NCJ-96501. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Hoffman, P.B. (1983). Screening for risk: A revised salient factor score (SFS 81). *Journal of Criminal Justice* 11: 539-547.
- Koerin, B. (1978). Violent crime: Prediction and control. *Crime and Delinquency* 24(1): 49-58.
- Menard, S. and Covey, H. (1983). Community alternatives and rearrest in Colorado. *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 10(1): 93-108.
- Noonan, S.B. and Tessa, E.S. (1987). Intensive probation: An examination of recidivism and social adjustment for an intensive supervision program. *American Journal of Criminal Justice* 12(1): 45-61.

- Roundtree, G.A., Edwards, D.W., and Parker, J.B. (1984). A study of the personal characteristics of probationers as related to recidivism. *Journal of Offender Counseling, Services and Rehabilitation* 8(3): 53-61.
- Schafer, N.E. and Wenderoff, L. (1986, October). A preliminary assessment of the impact on Alaska of participation in the Interstate Compact. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Midwestern Criminal Justice Association, Chicago.
- Wallerstedt, J.F. (1984, Nov.). Returning to prison. *Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report*, NCJ-95700. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Williams, K.M. (1978). *The Scope and Prediction of Recidivism*. Washington, DC: Institute for Law and Social Research.